ISLAM'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS WOMEN AND ORPHANS

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BY

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And of the Inner Temple, Barrister-at-Law (Copyright by the Author)

With an Introduction by AL-HAJJ LORD HEADLEY (AL FAROOQ)

(With the assistance of the Late Hajee Usoof Mohammed Sulaiman Botawala Charities Fund)

Published by

The Trust for the Encouragement and Circulation of Muslim Religious Literature

at

THE MOSQUE, WOKING, SURREY, ENGLAND

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THE LOVING MEMORY OF MY MOTHER

FOREWORD

Towards the end of 1927 the British Muslim Society, London, invited me to deliver a lecture on "Islam's Attitude towards Women and Orphans." I thought the subject was admirable and of particular interest to all students of comparative religions and sociology. I gladly accepted the invitation, and at one of the winter-session meetings of the Society the lecture was delivered.

Subsequently, the lecture was published as a series of articles in the Islamic Review, commencing from July 1928.

In its present form, the thesis owes its existence to the patronage and generosity of the late Hajee Usoof Mohammed Sulaiman Botawala Charities Fund, of Rander, District Surat, India, which has defrayed the expenses of its publication. I was exceedingly fortunate in meeting Mr. Ebrahim Usoof Botawala, who was then on a short visit to London. I was able to impress him with the necessity of bringing out the lecture in the form of a booklet for free distribution in Great Britain and in India. He at once directed the manager of his father's well-known Trust in Bombay to pay the expenses of its publication, with the result that it is now before the reading public of Great Britain and India.

My sole object in dealing with the subject is that it is of perennial interest, especially so at the present moment when the dawn of a new era is visible in all Islamic countries. To the West, Islam has never been properly explained. Europe has never fully appreciated the beauties of Islam—the services which it has rendered to the spiritual, social, and cultural

ISLAM'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS WOMEN development of the world. A thick crust of misconception development of the social aspect of Islam. The Woking Mission. through the inspiration and genius of its great founder, Al-Haji through the map of Din, has been untiring in its efforts to knowle special through such miscenceptions, and often at times to destroy wilful misrepresentation. Our efforts, small as they have been and are, have resulted in an appreciable removal of ignorance about things Islamic. By the publication of this of generalize a sincerely hope that it will tend to vindicate httle votation. On the Holy Qur-an and the great Arabian Prophet—that in its treatment of woman Islam stands far and above all other religions and social systems. I have laid some stress on the legal aspect of the question, simply because the true criterion for comparative judgment consists of the rights and remedies which the law bestows on woman. In discussing the status of woman under Islam, I have not dealt with the subject from the standpoint of any particular school of thought (such as the Sunni or the Shi'ah), but have taken a broad view of the subject, explaining the law as is to be found in the Qur-an and in the sayings of the Prophet. This book, it is submitted, has been written in a non-sectarian spirit-that is, the true spirit of Islam.

H I succeed in removing some of those chronic misconceptions about Islam reghant in the West in particular and the world in general, my efforts will not have been in vain.

I owe my thanks to Al-Hajj Lord Headley (Al-Farooq) for writing the Introduction to this little volume. Lord Headley more than any other British Muslim appreciates the social services of Islam, and as such his Introduction deserves careful parusal.

To Mr. Abdul Majid, Acting Imam of the Mosque, Woking, Surrey, England, I owe my thanks for many helpful suggestions, ... and also for correcting the proofs and looking after the publication generally. I may add that without his assistance the

FOREWORD

appearance of this little volume whild have been unduly delayed. I carry with me the fondest recollections of my association with him during my sajasme in England.

To the Librarian and Assistant Librarian of the Honourable Society of the Inner Temple, London, I owe my thanks for

belping me generally in the writing of this book.

Finally, I must thank Mr. Ebrahim Usoof Butawala for so kindly responding to our appeal. In him the Rander Sumi Muslim Community has an enterprising member who has set a worthy example by encouraging the dissemination of Islamic teachings. He has proved himself to be a true friend of Islam. I sincerely hope that his worthy example will be emulated by others.

C. A. BOORMA.

INTRODUCTION

I HAVE perused with great interest and enlightenment to myself the essay on "Islam's Attitude towards Women and Orphans" which Mr. C. A. Soorma has recently compiled.

been at great pains to collect information from many sources, the bibliography including excerpts from the works of the late Ameer Ali, Blackstone's Commentaries, Lecky's History of European Morals, the works of John Milton, Mayne, Hunter, Buhler's Laws of Manu, Mulla's Principles of Hindu Law and Principles of Mahomedan Law, and many others.

I welcome the appearance of this valuable addition to the literature on a subject which is just now attracting very much interest in the West. There is, I think, very little doubt that Islam is spreading westward—a broadminded view of matters religious is marching in step with scientific discovery. The "necessity" for a belief in the dogmas of Christianity, the creations of monks and priests three hundred years after Christ's time, is no longer regarded seriously by thoughtful and reasonable people.

In the West there appears to me to be a healthy desire to sweep away all quite non-essential improbabilities from religion. No reasonable person now thinks that he will "perish, everlastingly," or be cast into outer darkness where there will be "weeping and gnashing of teeth" merely because he fails to believe in the Divinity of Christ, the Trinity, the Sacra-

ISLAM'S ATTITUDE TOWARDS WOMEN ment, the Atenement and the "Immaculate Conception," and you would find it hard to convince any educated person that no prayers could possibly reach Almighty God except that no prayers cours possing reach amounty God except through Jesus Christ our Lord," My belief is, and always has been, ever since I could think at all, that even supposing Moses and Christ and Muhammad—all of Blessed Memory had nover existed at all, my carnest prayers to my Almighty had haver existed at us, my carmed prayers to my stangerty. introductions to the Author of my being? Will God cease to listen because there is no Prophet present?

Such thoughts as these convince me that the mind of the West, having discarded the man-made dogmas, is in a "neeptive" candition. Some of the old scientists were wont to observe that " Nature abhors a vacuum," and looking at it in this way it may well be that the Western mind is ready to give credence to a religion in which the fairy tales and improbabilities are reduced to a minimum. Islam stands forth as a beacon light. Worship the one and only God, Allah our Protector and Nourisher. Surrender yourself to His Almighty Will, and try to be good and kind to all your fellow-

No more is required of the Muslim, whose spirit is guided by His Lord in Heaven, and the beautiful instructions given through the agency of Moses, Christ and Muhammad and the other Prophets from time to time divinely inspired by the

Therefore, any instruction or writing which tends towards Almighty. the receptivity of Islam in the West at the present favourable moment is worthy of the strongest encouragement and support. We should strike whilst the iron is hot. I consider that Mr. Soorma's work, backed up by the evidence of the well-chosen excerpts from various high authorities, is well calculated to remove many of the false ideas which have been spread about concerning the treatment of women under Islam. 10

INTRODUCTION

By showing up such fallacies as " Muslims worship Muhammad," "Muslims have to marry four wives," "Women have no souls," and "Women are not allowed isside Mosques," we are paving the way to a better understanding of what Islam really means, and showing how suitable it is as the religion or binding force of any God-fearing and self-respecting nation. HEADLEY (ALFARODQ).

CHAPTER I

WOMEN UNDER ROMAN LAW

Perhaps there is no other aspect of Islam which has been so bitterly—and wrongly—criticized, as its attitude towards women. Islam has been accused of having degraded woman; it is attacked as having reduced her status, socially, morally and spiritually; and above all, it is criticized for not having given to woman her rightful place as man's comrade and companion in life. To an unprejudiced student, however, the facts appear to be otherwise. A comparative study of woman under different religious and social systems will enable us to appreciate the great services rendered by Islam in raising her status, legally and socially, and with this object in view I now propose to sketch briefly the story of woman from historical times to the advent of Islam. I shall begin this most interesting study with the story of woman under Roman Law.

Those who are familiar with Roman history know that the Roman family was based on the paternal power or patria potestas. As an institution, it is older than the State and formed an imperium in imperio. The head of the family was its sole representative, and he alone had any locus standi in the Councils of the State. Under Roman Law a daughter, by marrying and entering into another household, became subject to a different authority. Legally, she ceased to be a member of her father's family. Her children, similarly, became strangers to her father's hearth, and therefore no legal relationship existed between them and their grandfather's family.

Again, sons released from their father's potestas ceased to be members of his family, (Hunter, Introduction to Roman Law, pp. 37-5).

The relation of husband and wife under Roman Law is of peculiar interest to us. This depended on the Roman's manus over his wife. Manus was the name for the rights that the husband possessed over his wife and which normally resulted on marriage. A wife, if under her husband's manus, was called materfamilias; if not, simply exer or matrons—i.e. wife or matron, (Hunter, Roman Law, p. 222).

Lecky says that there were three kinds of marriage among the Romans.—

Firstly, there was the Confarreatio, which was celebrated before the Pontifex Maximus and the Priest of Jupiter. This involved a very selemn religious ceremony and only the children of such a union were eligible for the higher priestly offices. This form of marriage was practically indissoluble, and only patricians could be married under Confarreatio, (Lecky, History of European Morals, vol. ii. pp. 322-3).

The second type of marriage was called Goemptio in manum, or marriage by sale. This was a purely civil contract, and the wife passed in manus to the husband by mancipatio; that is, by a fictitious sale. She was thus nominally sold to the husband and conveyed by the same forms as if she were a chattel real. The husband acquired complete authority over the person and property of his wife. Gaius says that her legal position in her husband's household was that of a daughter: "If a wife in any case, and for any reason, is in her husband's manus, it is decided that she obtains the rights of a daughter", (Gaius, i. 115).

The third form of marriage was called usus, or prescription.
This became general during the Empire. It was effected by a simple declaration of an intention to cohabit as man and wife.
Under early Roman Law, the possession of a wife for a whole

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WOMEN UNDER ROMAN LAW

year gave the husband his manus over her by right of usus, just as he acquired his potestas over any other person or thing. The law of the XII Tables, therefore, provided that if a woman wished to escape this manus, then she should stay away for three nights each year (called trinoctium) in order to break off the usus of that year. This interruption in the period of his manus had a very important legal consequence, for, although the woman was married, legally she was not under the guardianship of her husband, but of the father, she being not in manumariti or virie. The wife thus gained absolute legal independence, with right to separate ownership of property independently of her husband. But the wife could not compel the husband to maintain her, nor had the husband any right or control over the wife's property, (Hunter, op. cit., p. 223; Buckland, Textbook of Roman Law, pp. 102-3).

In early times in Rome there was no necessity to obtain the authority of any tribunal for the dissolution of marriage. By a simple intimation, either party could at once terminate the union. This undoubtedly led to a great number of divorces, and marriage, as a social institution, degenerated because of the looseness of the tie.

Although polygamy was not legalized, yet Ameer Ali, in his Life and Teachings of Mohammed, p. 219, says: "After the Punic triumphs, the matrons of Rome aspired to the common benefits of a free and opulent republic, and their wishes were gratified by the indulgence of fathers and lovers."

Marriage soon became a simple practice of concubinage which was recognized by the law of the State,

"The freedom of women and the looseness of the tie which bound men to them, the frequency with which wives were changed or transferred, betoken in fact the prevalence of polygamy only under a different name", (Ameer Ali, op. cit., p. 220; also Howard, A History of Matrimonial Institutions, vol. ii. pp. 14-19).

A Roman kept several concubines and slaves who were either purchased in the open markets of Rome or were captiven of war. Children born of these slaves could not be properly called Roman citizens, unless their father was subsequently married to their mother. There is no doubt that a species of morganatic marriages had grown up in Rome and was a popular institution. One of the chief causes of the decline of the Imperial power of Rome was the prevalence of licentiousness and luxury in many of its undesirable forms. The social life of the Romans, even at the height of their glory, was not free from those vices and corruptions, which, very often, come into existence with pride of power and conquest. The presence of houses for immoral purposes, the fondness for nude and vulgar paintings and sculpture which I have myself seen in the ruins of Pompeii, all indicate the low status which woman occupied in Roman society for many centuries.

This, in spite of the praises of the poets and the culogies of the dramatists who idealized the Roman woman by putting her on a pedestal; but as a matter of fact, she never did occupy that eminent position.

To sum up the status of the Roman woman, we observe the following characteristics:—

- (1) No woman could be without a guardian.
- (2) When unmarried, she was under the perpetual tutelage of him who exercised patria potestas over her.
- (3) No marriage could take place without the consent of the father.
- (4) In early times a father could even kill his son or daughter for disobedience or misconduct.
- (5) She became her husband's property in the truest sense of the term, being sold and conveyed in Goemptio in manum in much the same manner as goods were sold and delivered by means of "the copper and the scales."

WOMEN UNDER ROMAN LAW

- (6) The husband could kill his wife for misconduct and adultery.
- (7) The wife's property passed to the Eusband on marriage, except the Dos which reverted to her on divorce. This happened only in cases where the wife was in manu viri, but not otherwise.
 - (8) No civil or public office could be held by a woman.
- (9) She could not adopt, nor could she be a surety or a tutor; this continued until the end of the fifth century A.D.
- (re) When in manu viri, she had to renounce all claims to paternal love and relationship.

Such was the status of woman as given by historians in an Empire which is considered to have been the most magnificent and civilized, and from which modern Europe has adopted many laws and is proud of having done so.

CHAPTER II

WOMEN IN GREECE

When we turn our attention to early Greece," we find that even there the position of woman was about the same, if not worse. Apart from the glowing pictures painted by Homer and perpetuated by the tragedians, the custom of selling daughters in marriage was general. The husbands appear to have indulged largely, and with little or no censure, in concubines. The superiority of man over woman was vehemently asserted on all sides. In the historical age of Greece, the legal position of women had in some respects slightly improved, but their moral condition had undergone a marked deterioration. All virtuous women lived a life of perfect seclusion.

It seems that the Greeks recognized two distinct orders of womanhood. There was, firstly, the wife whose first duty was fidelity to her husband, and secondly, there was the helders or mistress "who subsisted by her fugitive attachments." The wives, living in seclusion, occupied their time in weaving and spinning and other household duties. They lived in a retired part of the house to which strangers had no access and the wealthier women seldom went abroad and never except when accompanied by a female slave. They never attended any public functions, received no male visitors, except in the presence of their husbands. Lecky says that after the age of Plutarch the position of the virtuous Greek woman was a very low one. She, like her Roman sister, was under a perpetual tudelage; first of all, to her parents who disposed of her hand,

WOMEN IN GREECE

then to her husband, and in the days of her widowhood to her sons. In cases of inheritance, her male relatives were preferred to her. According to Westermarck, there also existed a general notion that she was naturally more vicious, more addicted to envy, discontent, evil-speaking and wantonness than the men. Even Plato classed woman together with children and servants, and states generally that in all the pursuits of mankind, the female sex is inferior to the male. Euripides, the great dramatist, puts into the mouth of his Medea the remark that "Women are impotent for good, but clever contrivers of all evil", (Lecky, op. cit., vol. ii. p. 306; Westermarck, Origin and Development of the Moral Ideas, vol. i. p. 662).

Contrasted with the virtuous Greek wife was the brilliant and polished courtesan. Learning and education were mostly confined to the heiacrae. Prostitution is said to have entered into the religious rites of Cyprus, Biblis, Corinth and Lesbos. Mitylene and Tenedos became notorious for their schools of vice which grew up under the shadow of the temples.

"Gathering around her the most brilliant artists, poets, historians and philosophers, she (i.e. the Greek courtesan) flung herself unreservedly into the intellectual and aesthetic enthusiasms of her time, and soon became the centre of a literary society of matchless splendour. It is said that Aspasia, one of the cleverest and most beautiful courtesans of her time, won the passionate love of Pericles, while Socrates believed himself to be deeply indebted to the instructions of a courtesan named Diotima", (Lecky, op. cil., vol. ii, p. 310).

In Sparta, such women as could not be expected to give birth to healthy children were often destroyed by order of the State, with the result that the proportion of women to men decreased to such an extent that one wife had several husbands. It was also ordered, says Lecky, that the old or infirm husbands should cede their young wives to a stronger man, who could produce vigorous soldiers for the State, (Lecky, op. cit., pp. 306–308).

CHAPTER III

WOMEN IN CHINA AND PERSIA

Is China, according to Westermarck, the condition of woman to to the sentiment tending to the amelioration of her social position has ever come from the Chinese sages. Her children must pay her respect, but she in turn owes to her husband the subjection of a child a wife is an infinitely less important personage than a mother in the Clunese social scale, (Westermarck, op cat, vol. 1. p 647). Perhaps this idea of the inferiority of woman to man is mainly responsible for the cruel Chinese custom of squeezing women's feet in shoes of lead and iron. thereby producing an unnafural deformity in size. I am told that this custom existed so as to disable Chinese women from running away from their homes. This cruel practice has now been abolished in China.

Howard, speaking of the Chinese law relating to divorce, says: "By Chinese law divorce must be granted in case of any of the numerous impediments to marriage, or when the wife is guilty of adultery. For that offence the aggrieved husband may kill the offending wife and her paramour, if he cat l. t n. in flagrante delicto. But should the woman not be ship she is fire out in I the hasband may drive her 14.1 reservable of the considered provided actions not pand red to the state that self her to the guilty man Fertherm se, a taxtage may be dissolved by nutual agreenext and the hast and is entitled to a divorce when the wife

WOMEN IN CHINA AND PERSIA

strikes him is addicted to drunkenness or option smoking, has been defiled before marriage, or when she leaves his house against his will. Besides all these grounds, established by statute or recent unage, Confuctur allows the husband a divorce for any of the seven faults of the wife harrenness, wantonness, treattenties to parents in law, talketiveness, theft, jealousy, and inveterate disease such as leptony "

It seems that in special circumstances, such as the family growing rich during the marriage or the absence of any relative to receive the wife, if divorced, the above seven reasons would not constitute a valid ground for divorce, and the husband has to retain the wife.

" Normally," proceeds Howard, " the wife cannot sue for divorce; still practically she enjoys the right of separation in several important contingencies camer junicial approval, for instance, she may release herself from the marriage bond in case of three years' desertion without word from her husband So likewise, when she suffers grave insult from the husband's porente the may telian to be we seek a bouler detail gut entides i d'a contubuti a loc les appets. Il wart, op. cit., pp. 235-237).

Formerly, in Japan, woman was regarded more as a chattel than as a human being. But public opinion and education has now raised her status, and she is now called " the honourable lady of the house" The law of cavorce in modern Japan is regulated according to the principles of Western law.

Although the Z reastract Varis probed clebs woman as being 'righ in good thought, good words, and good deeds, well principled and obedient to be classbead "the betory of Persay is another example of the deprayity of the estimes. The great reforms of Zoroaster had gone by the board and the morals of Iran had degenerated to an unspeakable extent.

"The climax was reached when Mazdak, in the beginning of the sixth century of the Christian era, bade all men to be

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One has the store of Portar poets, for his and Natura to or our them had practiced and ent Persia before the introduct of an interpretable for the introduction of the state of them the state of winning the state of winning than

CHAPTER IV

WOMEN UNDER BUDDHISM

Biddless which claims, and perhap rightly to head and idealist, order, his not record to work any definite place, or have to conjuged do equality of the protocof the few and the excitation of the protocof work and the few alone of work and the few alone of work and the few alone would be could not find in woman a lappinate and economic to the name tool that Baddles could not altern Aurabia with in the employ of las beautiful wife and surjoinfeed by tainly to clearly indicates the information of working as many better and and partner in life. What a gulf yaws and this respect to tween the great Gautama and the Proplet Muhamarash. The typical of Ameeda found in his aged wife Khaus ja solate and comfort at the most critical moment of his life.

Buddhism teaches asceticism and monastici m. It also lays great stress on cehbacy. Buddha succeeded in removing all distinctions of easte which ilourished and still flourishes under Brahminism, but he apparently left the question of the relation of the sexes somewhat severely alone. According to Westermarck, "To the Buddhist, women are of all the snares which the tempter has spread for men the most dangerous, in women are embedded all the powers of infatuation which fund the mind of the world", (Westermarck, op. 64, vol. 1, p. 662).

According to yet another authority, a very learned jurist in Burmese Buddhist Law, the late U May Oung, "the very idea of wedlock and its attendant worldly life is opposed to the ultimate end of Buddhism—the annihilation of Desire,

and notwithstanding that the Buddha, in his discourses to the laity, laid down rules of conduct to be observed by married persons, parents and children, yet he was careful to impress upon his hearers the need for keeping in mind the spiritual life. Thus, while commending him who supports his father, mother, wife and offspring, he at the same time indicates the goal of Nariana the striving for which must necessarily involve čehbacy ", (May Oung, Buddhist Law, Part 1, p. 2).

But even Buddha could not change human nature. His teachings, admittedly highly moral and spiritual, lack that fundamental insight into human nature which a social reformer ought to possess. It is useless for a would-be reformer to speak simply in terms of high idealism and ethics without laying down the law as regards the necessary relationship of the sexes. This is way although Buddha himself extolled celibacy, we find Buddlusts after his death enjoying all the bliss and happiness of matrimony. Had it been otherwise, it is obvious that Buddhism could not have spread so rapidly and extensively as to cover nearly half the world's total

population.

Polygamy and concubinage are sanctioned by Buddhist customary law, and no legal restrictions are placed on the number of wives a man might have. In Burma, which is a Buddhist country, the customary law is derived mainly from the laws of Manu, the Rishi, who was a Brahmin. The various Dhammathats the chief of which is the Manugve, lay down elaborate rules as regards marriage, divorce, inheritance, etc. Local customs, undoul tedly, have influenced the original character of the Laws of Manu, with the result that in Burma the status of woman is much higher than among the Hindus. But even then up till a few years ago the position of woman was, comparatively speaking, very low. In this connection, the learned author above cited, says: "Many kings of Burma, in their anxiety to preserve dynastic purity, were guilty of

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practices which would certainly not be tolerated at the present day, and which, even in the days gone by, were confined to the royal family. Thus the union of uncle and niece, nephew and aunt, half-brother and half-sister, was permitted, and in traditionary accounts we even read of a marriage between full brother and sister! In the case, however, of marriage with a brother's widow, common in the case of kings and chiefs, officials and others followed their example to a certain extent, and instances have been known at the present day-though rare; on the other hand, marriage with a deceased wife's sister -almost in all cases a younger sister-is considered most proper, the chief reason being that the children will not be given a stranger as stepmother. As regards cousins, generally speaking, union with agnates is strongly deprecated, while that with other cognates is not looked upon with distayour, provided the woman is on the same line as the man or below it. The writer has come across instances of a man marrying his deceased wife's mother, and another his deceased son's wife-but such have been very properly looked down upon. No case has arisen in which the validity of a marriage has been questioned on the ground of consanguinity or affinity, and when one does a considerable body of evidence will have to be led to prove prevailing customs", (May Oung, op. cit., Part I, p. 5).

a am glad to admit, however, that with greater female education in Burma, women have made, and are now making, considerable headway. They have always fought for their rights and have obtained them. Thus we see that the laws of divorce, for instance, are just and fair. The husband cannot divorce the wife at will or "by caprice." Divorce by mutual consent is very common. Again, their laws of inheritance are equitable, the women sharing equally with men. In all these respects, as we shall see, the Burmese women are better placed and protected than the Hindu women.

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WOMEN UNDER HINDUISM

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It in sect a to feet a different help to este that a period of the feet and wide to posterior entry predicted to the feet and among the creates, whose are periodically remain.

(Mayne, op. cit., pp. 115-116). This Brahmanical prohibition was once carried to such an extreme that a widow was enjoined and sometimes forcibly burned on the funeral pyre along with her husband's body, or, if he died at a distance, was burned on a pyre of her own. Akbar, the Great Mogul, prohibited it, and after the decay and fall of the Mogul Empire this barbarous custom regained its old hold, and it was not until 1829, when Lord William Bentinck, the then Governor-General of India, made Sulles culpable homicide, that it died out, (Chambers's Encyclopædia, vol. ix. p. 793).

As regards the wife's legal status and her right to separate ownership of property, let me quote the following in support of the contention that Hindu Law does not recognize her as a feme-sole for many purposes:—

the aly is a perfect man who consists (of three persons)—his wife, himself, and his offspring; they (says the Veda) and (learned) Brahmanas propound this mount, kewise—'the husband is declared to be one with the wife'", (Manu, 1x. 45).

As under it. R. i.i. I in "North, and do in, pare of process or a licatio" the wife's gotra (relatives) becomes that it for the last her complete initiation is effected by her naturage he renounces the protection of her paternal manus and process into the family of her husband. The connection being thus intimate, there should be no litigation between the married pair, and according to Apastamba there can be no division between them. Any property which the married acoman may acquire is usually her husband's. A thing delivered to his a effectually delivered to the husband, and what is received it to on her is as if received from him. Her full ownerally of it stridham (i.e. generally property given to her by his relative and husband on marriage for her own use) is appeared to the qualification that her husband may dispose of

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it in case of distress, and that her own power to alienate it is subject to control by him with the exception of the so-called Sandayakum, the gifts of affectionate kinsmen. . . The identity between the married couple being thus complete . . . wealth is common to the married pair," but this constitutes in the wife (according to Jagannatha) only a secondary or subordinate property. "Her right in the husband's estate is not mutual like the co-extensive rights of united brethren. It is dependent on the husband's and ceases with its extinction. Her legal existence is thus, in some measure, absorbed during her coverture in that of her husband", (West and Majid, Hindu Laue, pp. 85-86).

(a) Under the Mitakshara law of succession "the widow takes only a limited interest in the estate of her husband, called the widow's estate. On her death, the estate goes, not to her heirs, but to the next heirs of her husband, technically called reversioners. She is entitled only to the income of the property inherited by her. She has no power to dispose of the corpus of the property except in certain cases (e.g. in case of legal necessity). She may, however, alrenate her life interest in the estate", (Mulla, Principles of Hindu Law, p. 34).

(b) According to the Mayukha School the widow comes in after the son, son's son (where father is dead), son's son's son (where father and grandfather are both dead), (Mulla, op. cit., p. 91).

(c) According to the Dayabhaga School, again, the widow comes in after the son, grandson and great-grandson. (Mulla, op. cit., p. 100).

"The remarriage of a widow, though now legalized by the Hindu Widows Remarriage Act of 1856, devests the estate inherited by her from her deceased husband. By her second marriage she forfeits the interest taken by her in her husband's estate, and it passes to the next heirs of her husband as-if the were dead. The reason is that a widow succeeds as the sur-

viving half of her husband and she ceases to be so on remarriage But a widow does not by remarriage lose her rights to succeed to the estate of her son by her first husband ". (Mulla, op. cit., p. 34).

Right of the Hindu Widow to the Guardianship of Children by the Previous Husband .- It is provided by Section 3 of the Hendu Widows' Remarriage Act, 1856, that on a widow's remarriage, any relation of the deceased husband can apply to the proper Court for appointment of the Guardian for his children, and the case shall be disposed of as if the children had neither father nor mother. So the result is that on remarriage the mother ceases to be a mother in the eye of the law, and the Allahabad High Court in Khusali v. Rani (1882). 4 All., p. 195, held that ordinarily a widow after remarriage is not entitled to the guardianship of the children unless there was some good cause. Such good cause was found in a Calcutta case, Ganga Prasad Sahu v. Jhalo (1911), 38 Cal., p. 862, when at the time of the remarriage the son was an infant, and their Lordships came to the conclusion that the mother was ettiled to guardianship, not because she was still the mother, but for the reason that the Court could appoint even a stranger as guardian, and there being a good cause why the stranger mothar should be made guardian, their Lordships decided the cas in her favour, (All-India Reporter, May 1929, p. 38).

Under the Milakshara law, the daughters do not take as joint tenants with benefits of survivorship, but they take as tenants in-common. In the Bombay Presidency, the daughter does not take a limited estate in her father's property, but takes the property absolutely. On her death, her share passes to her own heirs as her stridhan, (Mulla, op. cit., p. 85).

this rule, with some modifications, is also adopted by the Wayukha and Dayabhaga schools of Hindu Law, (Mulla, op. cit., pp. s and 100).

But it must be noted that daughters do not inherit until

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main schools of law. Sprikery generally a property the inheritance goes first to the anameter language to coughters who are married and unpromised to the second class can inherit while any member of the first class is in existence, and no member of the third class can inherit while any member of the second class is in existence, (Mulla, op. cit., p. 36).

"Divorce is not known to the general Hindu Law. The reason is that a marriage, from the Hindu point of view, creates an indissoluble tie between the husband and the wife. Neither party, therefore, to a marriage can divorce the other unless divorce is allowed by custom. . . . Change of religion or loss of caste does not operate as a dissolution of marriage, nor does the adultery of either party, nor even the fact that the wife has deserted her husband and become a prostitute", (Mulla, op. eit., p. 427).

In this respect, as we shall see a little later, the attitude of Hindu Law resembles very much the attitude of the Roman Catholic Church, both regarding marriage as a sacrament, and holding the union of male and female to be industrial.

Obviously, as we have seen, the status of woman is very inferior under Hindu Law. The contrast is more significant when we compare her status to the status occupied by the Buddhist women, although, curiously enough, their status under both the systems of law is supposed to be based mainly upon the same laws of Manul Why such a strong contrast should exist it is not possible to discuss here. That it does exist is clear, it is suggested, from the above comparative study.

CHAPTER VI

WOMEN UNDER JUDAISM

According to Westermarck, "the Hebrews represented woman as the source of evil and death on earth."

"Of the woman came the beginning of sin, and through her we all die", (Ecclesiasticus xxv. 2: 24. Westermarck, op. cit., p. 662).

That woman occupied a very inferior status in Hebrew Society is clear, not only from a perusal of the Old Testament, but also the writings of other historians. For instance, Lecky, speaking of the depreciation of the character of woman by the state a celesiastics, attributes it to the influence of Judaism.

the most lewish writings, in which it is probable that most tap to be between will detect evident traces of the common that I detect will detect evident traces of the common that I detect and practised by the wisest men on an authorized and practised by the wisest men on an in the resolution. A woman was regarded as the origin of human that is scale. A woman was appointed after the birth of the level of purification was appointed after the birth of the level of the birth of the case of a female as of a male child, (Lev. xii. 2, 3, 4 and 5). The badness of men, a Jewish writer emphatically defined, is better than the goodness of women. The types of the excellence exhibited in the early period of Jewish by tery are in general of a low order, and certainly far inferior

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to those of Roman history or Greek poetry; and the warmest eulogy of a woman in the Old Testament is probably that which was bestowed upon her who, with circumstances of the most aggravated treachery, had murdered the sleeping fugitive who had taken refuge under her roof ", (Lecky, op. cit., ii. p. 352).

"By the Jewish law," says Howard, "as it still existed at the dawn of the present era, divorce was the onesided privilege of man, (Deut. xxiv. 1-4). At most there was only a faint trace of the woman's later right, sanctioned by the Talmud, of demanding a separation. Legally, for the slightest reason, as the school of Hillel justly maintained, the husband could put away the wife by simply handing her a 'get' or a bill of divorce. By the written law only in two cases, for grave misconduct, was he deprived of this power, though in practice there were several ameliorating conditions-which tended to put a check upon arbitrary action. Thus, while divorce was a private transaction, certain formalities had to be observed in connection with the 'get' which secured the restraining influence of publicity; and in case the wife was unjustly repudiated, the dower, representing the ancient mohar, or purchase-price of the bride, had to be paid to her from the husband's property ", (Howard, op. cit., pp. 12-14).

Polygamy among Jews continued right up to the twelfth century. "An express prohibition of polygamy was not pronounced until the convening of the Rabbinical Synod at Worms, under the celebrated Rabbi Gershom ben Juda, at the beginning of the eleventh century. Though this prohibition was originally made for the Jews living in Germany and Northern France, it was successively adopted in all European countries. Nevertheless the Jewish Marriage Code retained many provisions which originated at a time when polygamy was still legally in existence", (Mielziner, The Jewish Law of Marriage and Divorce, p. 30).

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- (c) "And anto Adam He said B is seen a must rear kees and the write of the edge and has teaten for the tree of which I command to escape their shall recteat of it curs of is the great liter that sak in section shall their eat. Into the days of the life "
 (Gen in 17)

Again, while discussing the relative importance of the sexes, the Bible says:—

- (a) "For the man is not of the woman, but the woman of the man", (1 Cor. xi. 8).
- (b) "Neither was the man created for the woman, but the woman for the man", (1 Cor. xi. 9).
- (c) "For this cause ought the woman to have power on her head, because of the angels", (1 Cor. xi. 10).

In the First Epistle of Paul the Apostle to Timothy we again find the following:—

- (a) "I will therefore that men pray everywhere, lifting up holy hands, without wrath and doubting", (x Tim. ii. 8).
- (b) "In like manner also, that women adom themselves in modest apparel, with shamefacedness and sobriety; not with braided hair, or gold, or pearls, or costly array", (1 Tun. il. 9).
- (c) "Let the women learn in silence with all subjection", (1 Tim. ii. II).
- (I) But I suffer not a woman to teach, nor to usurp authority over the man, but to be in silence", (1 Tim. ii. 12).
- (c) "For Adam was first formed, and then Eve", (x Tim.
- (f) And Adam was not deceived, but the woman being deceived was in the transgression", (1 Tim. ii. 14).

Thus Paul, the premier Saint of Christendom, allots to woman a status inferior to that of man. Woman is here made the scapegeat for her as well as Adam's sin. But for Eve, Adum would not have been banished from the Garden of Eden, nor would there have been any necessity for the expiation

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of the original sin by the subsequent "crucifixion of Jesus Christ, the son of God!" Poor woman! What a world of difference there is in this story and the story as given in the Qur-an. In the latter, as we shall see very soon, the fall of man was due, not solely to the weakness of Eve, but to the weakness of both Adam and Eve. Both were transgressors, and both suffered.

Westermarck, commenting on this story, says:-

"Tertullian maintains that a woman should go about in humble garb, mourning and repentant, in order to expiate that which she derives from Eve, the ignominy of the first sin and the odium attaching to her as the cause of human perdition. 'Do you know that you are each an Eve? The sentence of God on this sex of yours lives in this age; the guilt must of necessity live too. You are the Devil's gateway; you are the unseater of that forbidden tree, you are the first deserter of the divine law, you are she who persuaded him whom the Devil was not valiant enough to attack; you destroyed so easily God's image, Man. On account of your desert—that is, death—even the Son of God had to die'", (Westermarck, op. cit., pp. 662-3).

This is strong language indeed, but that woman was unfairly denounced and horribly persecuted during the early days of Christianity is amply clear. For instance, Lecky says:—

"The combined influence of the Jewish writings, and of that ascetic feeling which treated women as the chief source of temptation to man, was shown in those fierce invectives against this sex which form so conspicuous and so grotesque a portion of the writings of the Fathers and which contrasts so curiously with the adulation bestowed upon particular members of the sex. Woman was represented as the door of hell, as the mother of all human ills. She should be ashamed at the very thought that she is a woman. She should live in con-

tinual penance, on account of the curses she has brought upon the world. She should be ashamed of her dress, for it is the memorial of her fall. She should be especially ashamed of her beauty, for it is the most potent instrument of the dæmon. Physical beauty was indeed perpetually the theme of ecclesiastical denunciations, though one singular exception seems to have been made; for it has been observed that in the Middle Ages the personal beauty of the bishops was continually noticed upon their tombs. Women were forbidden by a Provincial Council (a Council of Auxere, A.D. 578) in the sixth century, on account of their impurity, to receive the Eucharist into their naked hands. Their essentially subordinate position was continually maintained", (Lecky, op. cit., pp. 357-8).

At the Council of Macon, towards the end of the sixth century, a bishop vehemently denied that woman even belonged to the human species (Westermarck, op. cit., p. 663).

Poor woman! Had Jesus Christ lived to hear these ignoble sentiments, he would have been horrified and shocked. The life of Christ abundantly proves that he had all the manly qualities of modesty and chivalry which have been the birthright of all the Prophets. I consider him to be of the same type and class as the Prophet Muhammad. The religion which claims to-day to be "Christianity" is certainly not the religion taught by the Nazarene, Jesus had the profound at respect and love for his mother, the Virgin Mary. Naturally, he respected all women, which can best be illustrated by the protection which he gave to the woman taken in sin who was being persecuted by the Jews, (Matt. vii. 1-5). *Christ, a model man, never degraded woman. To say that he did is a blasphemy and a lie. But there is certainly a great deal of truth in the statement that his disciples and those that came after him claiming to be savants and saints of the Church did degrade woman, and denied to her her rightful place in the social scheme. Throughout the ages, until very

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recent times, the Church has heaped insult and suffering on the head of poor woman. Her emencipation in the West has been achieved, as stated above, by courageous social reformers who had to destroy the Biblical myth of the inferiority of woman to man. How far Muhammad was in advance of these reformers will be clear when we come to the status of woman in Islam.

CHAPTER VIII

WOMEN UNDER CHRISTIANITY: ::: THEIR LEGAL STATUS

So much for the moral and spiritual position of woman under Christianity. What about her legal status, her capacity to hold separate property, independently of her husband? I shall quote two authors to show that wherever the Canon Law was followed.

1. The tity of the wife was merged in that of the husband and the status and the status are sold in the eye of the law.

Fasar - Maure first, we observe:-

b . . ; ser of law relating to married women was for tl made and by the light, not of Roman but of Canon L. " " no one particular departs so widely from the ar as in the view it takes of the relations created was in part inevitable, since no society which ncture of Christian institutions is likely to restore 1 (7. C) 1 in the personal liberty conferred on them by the V. Law, but the proprietary disabilities of married , n quite a different basis from their personal . I it is by the tendency of their doctrines to keep of a second the secular and ecclesiastical principles Late than Law near y verywhere prevailed . . the systems, while while are least indulgent to married women are invaria . the weigh have followed the Canon Law exclusively, or

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those which, from the lateness of their contact with European civilization, have never had their archaisms weeded out. The Danish and Swedish laws, harsh for many centuries to all females, are still much less favourable to wives than the generality of Continental Codes (e.g. under the Code Napoléon). And yet more stringent in the proprietary incapacities it imposes is the English Common Law, which borrows for itself the greatest number of its fundamental principles from the jurisprudence of the Canonists. Indeed, the part of the Common Law which prescribes the legal situation of married women may serve to give an Englishman clear notions of the great institution which has been the principal subject of this chapter. I do not know how the operation and nature of the Pairia Potestas can be brought so vividly before the mind as by reflecting on the prerogatives attached to the husband by the pure English Common Law and by recalling the vigorous consistency with which the view of a complete legal subjection on the part of the wife is carried by it, where it is untouched by equity or statutes, through every department of rights, duties, and remedies", (Maine, Ancient Law (10th ed.) pp 162-104

Lecky, in another equally him, passage says -

"In addition to the personal ristrictions which grow necessarily out of the Cathelic dectrines cine many diverse uil the subordination of the weaker set we in a numer us and struggent enactments, which rendered it impossible: I women to succeed to any considerable amount of property and which almost reduced them to the alternative of marriage it a number. The complete inferiority of the sex was continually maintained by the law, and that generous public opinion which in Rome had frequently revolted against the injustice done to girls, in depriving them of the greater part of the inheritance of their father, totally disappeared. Wherever the Canon Law has been the basis of legislation, we find laws of succession, sacrificing the interests of daughters and wives, and a state of public opinion which has been

formed and regulated by these laws; nor was any serious attempt made to abolish them fill the close of the last century", (Lecky, History of European Morals, vol. ii. p. 330).

In England, "up till the 1st of January, 1883, it was true to state that, as a general rule, the contract of a married woman was void. Yet there were exceptions to this rule: in some cases a married woman could make a valid contract, but could not sue or be sued upon it apart from her husband; in others she could sue but could not be sued alone; in others she could both sue and be sued alone. . . The Married Women's Property Acts of 1870 and 1874 specified various forms of property as the separate estate of the married women, enabled them to sue for such property and gave them all remedies, civil and criminal, for its protection that an unmarried woman would have had under the circumstances. Under these Acts a married woman might make a contract for the exercise of her personal skill or labour, and maintain an action upon it", (Anson, Law of Contract, pp. 153, 155).

The Married Women's Property Act, 1882, repealed the Acts of 1870 and 1874, and by Subsection 1 of Section 1, it enacted that:—

"All property, real and personal, in possession, reversion or remainder, vested or contingent, held by a woman before, or acquired after marriage, is now her separate property. She can acquire, hold, and dispose of it by will or otherwise, 'as her separate property in the same manner as if she were a feme sole without the intervention of any trustee'", (Anson, op. cit., p. 156).

By Subsection 2 of Section 1 of the Act it was laid down that:—

"A married woman shall be capable of suing and being sued either in contract or in tort, or otherwise, in all respects as if she were a feme sole, and her husband need not be joined with her as plaintiff or defendant, or be made a party to any action or legal proceeding brought by or taken against her . . . and any damage

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or costs recovered against her in any such action or proceeding shall be payable out of her separate property and not otherwise."

But it has been held that the above section does not affect the Common Law liability of a husband for his wife's torts during the subsistence of the marriage. It "appears to give the option of suing the wife when she has separate property and there is a chance of the plaintiff being able to enforce judgment against her; while in cases where there would be no chance of enforcing judgment against the wife, the husband is left subject to his old Common Law liabilities. The words of the section are, need not be joined, but they do not discharge the husband from his old liability; they are intended to give a plaintiff the option of suing the husband and wife together or suing the wife alone; judgment may be entered against the wife and execution issued against her separate property, If she has any; but where she has none, the plaintiff is entitled to add the husband as co-defendant", (Seroka v. Kattenburg (1886), 17 Q.B.D., p. 177).

The Court of Appeal followed and approved of the decision in the above case in Earl v. Kingscote (1900), 2 Ch., p. 585, and Beaumont v. Kay (1904), 1 K B., p. 292.

Thus it is clear that even to this day the identity of the wife is, to a certain extent, still merged in that of her husband in England. But the Islamic conception of treating the wife as a feme sole in all respects was far in advance of any Western juristic conception, as will be clear from the ensuing chapters.

CHAPTER IX

DOES CHRISTIANITY FORBID POLYGAMY?

It has often been asserted that Christianity interdicted pulygamy, and made monogamy obligatory on all. Nothing can be farther from the truth.

Ameer Ali, speaking of the general prevalence of polygamy among all nations, remarks :—

"And so it was understood by the leaders of Christendom at various times that there is no intrinsic immorality or sinterest in the control of the greatest Follows of the Christian Church (St. Augustine) has declared that polygon at the country at a term of the items, even as late as the sixteenth in all the country of the control of the country of the control of t

W. T. H'1071 y made its appearance in Rome, hist ry service programs was recognized and the early Christian From the service admitted its valuaty. Says Ameer Al.

The Empirer Vacantar an II, by an Edict, allowed all the subjects of the Empire, if they pleased, to marry several ways, nor does it appear from the occlesiastical history of those times that the Bishops and the heads of the Christian

DOES CHRISTIANITY FORBID POLYGAMY?

Churches made any objection to this law. Far from it; all the succeeding Emperors practised polygamy, and the people generally were not remiss in following their example. Even the clergy often had several wives. This state of the laws continued until the time of Justinian, when the concentrated wisdom and experience of thirteen centuries of progress and development in the arts of life (combined with the Semitic influences not only of the two religions, but also of those great jurists who pre-eminently belonged to that race) resulted in their embodiment in the celebrated laws of Justinian. But these laws owed little to Christianity, at least directly. The greatest adviser of Justiman was an atheist and a pagan. Even the prohibition of polygamy by Justinian failed to check the tendency of the age. The law represented the advancement of thought; its influence was confined to a few thinkers, but to the mass it was practically a dead letter", (Ameer Ali, Life and Teachings of Mohammed, pp. 222-3)

and demerits of polygamy, observes:—

In the differential control of the second and control of the second of the sec

impious, and as it is the height of injustice, as well as an example of most dangerous tendency in religion, to account as sin what is not such in reality, it appears true that, so far from the question respecting the lawfulness of polygamy being trivial, it is of the highest importance that it should be decided.", (Milton, A Treatise on Christian D ctrine, pp. 231-2).

A study of certain texts in the Bible clearly admits the Laufulness of polygamy. For instance !--

- (a) "If he take him another wife, her food, her raiment, and be duty of marriage shall he not diminish",
- the land the (David) thy master's house, and has mater a wives into thy bosom, and gave thee the land of Israel and of Judah; and if that had been too little I would moreover have given unto the same and such things", (2 Sam. xii. 8).

M from atoms that the wives of Saul, given to David by the above text were the virgins in the house of Saul, and that for David dill and commit incest, since Saul was his fath the law (M from ep. cd., pp. 238-9).

- When the training the stand the queen in gold of the control of th
- A thin had that which was right in the sight of the land all the days of Jehoiada the priest",
- And I have to look for him two wives, and he begat some and dought rs ", (2 Chron. xxiv. 3).

I tom a madenation of the above texts and others from the libble Milton argues

On what grounds, however, can a practice be considered dislaminable or shapeful which is prohibited to no one even onder the Gospel' for that dispensation annuls none of the

DOES CHRISTIANITY FORBID POLYGAMY?

merely civil regulations which existed previous to its introduction. It is only enjoined that elders and deacons should be chosen from such as were husbands of one wife, (r Tim. iii. 2, and Titus i. 6). This implies, not that to be the husband of more than one wife would be a sin, for in that case the restriction would have been equally imposed on all, but that in proportion as they were less entangled in domestic affairs they would be more at leisure for the business of the Church. Since, therefore, polygamy is interdicted in this passage to ministers of the Church alone, and that not on account of any sinfulness in the practice, and since none of the other members are precluded from it either here or elsewhere, it follows that it was permitted, as above said, to all the remaining members of the Church, and that it was adopted by many without offence "-(Milton, op. cii., pp. 240-41).

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CHAPTER X

DIVORCE IN CHRISTIANITY

DID Christ allow the right of divorce? The Protestants say "Yes," but the Roman Catholics emphatically assert "No."

"According to the fundamental teaching of Jesus, as reported by Matthew (xix. 9) the husband is forbidden to put away the wife, except for unfaithfulness, (Matt. xix. 3-12). Divincly created as male and female, 'they twain shall be one flesh,' and 'what therefore God hath joined together, let no man put asunder,' (Matt. xix. 6). Whether for the same reason the woman may put away the man, or whether either the innocent or guilty party may contract a second marriage, we are here not expressly informed. Inferences may, of course, be drawn by assuming that Jesus had the principles of the Jewish law in mind, but this mode of procedure is scarcely satisfying. Nor do the other sacred writers throw any clear light on these important questions. Rather do they deepen the obscurity, for both Mark (x. 2-12) and Luke (xvi. 18) appear absolutely to prohibit divorce, not expressly admitting even the one ground of separation granted on the authority of Matthew. . . . The utterances of Paul on this subject (1 Cor. vii. 8-16), as on all questions connected with marriage and the family, are of the highest importance in view of their historical consequences. Referring directly to the teaching of Jesus, he first seemingly denies the right of divorce to either party. With Mark and Luke he omits the exception mentioned by Matthew; and with Mark he expressly

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forbids the wife to ' depart from her husband,' adding, however the inconsequent and bewildering command, 'if she depart, let her remain unmarried, or be reconciled to her husband ", (Howard, History of Matrimonial Institutions, vol. ii. pp. 19-21).

Thus we see that among Christ's own disciples there is no unanimity as to whether the Master sanctioned divorce and remarriage or not. The confusion which these contradictory passages gave rise to was settled only after many centuries of struggle which divided the whole of Christendom into two camps, one for divorce and the other against it altogether.

Milton called divorce "A law of moral equity, a pure moral economical law so clear in nature and reason that it was left to a man's own arbitrament to be determined between God and his own conscience, and the restraint whereof, who is not too thick-sighted, may see how hurtful and destructive it is to the house, the Church and the Commonwealth", (Milton, Doctrine and Discipline of Divorce, Prose Works, III, pp. 241-2).

We are entirely in agreement with Milton's views. Can anyone deny that a refusal to grant divorce must necessarily inflict great hardship on both husband and wife? It is productive of much social harm, as it puts a premium on bastardy. The Protestant Churches allow the right of divorce, but here again we find that the reforms were the result, not of the Church, but of the State-of a few social reformers. The Roman Catholic Church, on the other hand, absolutely forbids divorce, asserting that it is against the teachings of Christ! All that it allows, in cases of disagreement between husband and wife, is judicial separation, and not divorce. But mere judicial separation, naturally, does not enable either party to remarry and set up a new home. They are condemned to live a life of perpetual misery, and if young, to have recourse to immorality, which, as Milton observes, is hurtful to the home, the Church and the State. We are, therefore, thankful to the 51

Arabian Prophet that he enables us to have recourse to divorce when the husband and wife cannot live peacefully together. There is no controversy in Islam as to the lawfulness or otherwise of divorce. In a few short verses, the Qur-an lays down the law, and admittedly, as we shall see, they are fair and just.

CHAPTER XI

WOMEN IN PRE-ISLAMIC ARABIA

"Among Mohammed's own people, the Arabs, unlimited polygamy prevailed, prior to the promulgation of Islam. A man might marry as many wives as he could maintain, and repudiate them at will. A widow was considered as a sort of integral part of the heritage of her husband. Hence the frequent unions between step-sons and mothers-in-law which, when subsequently forbidden by Islam, were branded by the name of Nikha-ul-Makht (shameful or odious marriages). Even polyandry was practised by the half-Jewish, half-Sabean tribes of Yemen", (Ameer Ali, Life and Teachings of Mohammed, p. 225; and also Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. p. 20).

" Before Islam, a woman was not a free agent in contracting marriage. It was the right of the father, brother, cousin, or any other male guardian, to give her in marriage, whether she was old or young, widow or virgin, to whomsoever he chose. Her consent was of no moment. There was even a practice prevalent of marrying women by force. This often happened on the death of a man leaving widows. His son or other heir would immediately cast a sheet of cloth on each of the widows (excepting his natural mother), and this was a symbol that he had annexed them to himself. If a widow escaped to her relations before the sheet was thrown over her, the heirs of the deceased would refuse to pay the dower. This custom is described as the inheriting of a deceased man's widows by his heirs, who in such cases would divide them among themselves 58

like goods. . . . There was no restriction as to the number of wives an Arab could fake. The only limit was that imposed by his means, opportunity and inclinations. Unrestricted polygamy which was sanctioned by usage was universally prevalent. This was exclusive of the number of slave-girls which a man might possess. . . . The limits of relationship within which marriage was prohibited were narrow and defined only by close degrees of consanguinity. . . . There can be no doubt that an Arab could not marry his mother, grandmother, sister, daughter or granddaughter, and perhaps he was not allowed to marry his aunt or niece. But those among them that followed the Magian religion could marry their own daughters and sisters. An Arab was permitted to take as his with his step-mather, cousin, wife's sisters, and could combine in marriage two sisters or a woman and her niece. It is d abtful war are he could marry his mother-in-law or stepdaughter Unrestrained as an Arab was in the number of his wives, he was likewise absolutely free to release himself trem tre manial tie. His power in this connection was absolut and he was not required or expected to assign any reasen for its exercise, nor was he under the necessity of observing any particular procedure. The word commonly used for this purpose was talaq. It depended upon his discretion whether he would dissolve the marriage absolutely and thus set the woman free to marry again or net. He might, if he so chose, revoke the divorce and resume manual connection Sometimes an Arab would pronounce talaq ten times and take his wife back, and again divorce her and then take her back, and so on The wife in such a predicament was entirely at the m-rey of the husband, and would not know when she was free Smetimes the husband would renounce his wife by means of what was called a suspensory divorce. This procedure did not dissolve the marriage, but it only enabled the Lusband t I fuse to live with his wife, while the latter was

. WOMEN IN PRE-ISLAMIC ARABIA

not at liberty to marry again. . . . The wife among the Arabs had no corresponding right to release herself from the marriage bond. But her parents by a friendly arrangement with the husband could obtain a separation by returning the dower if it had been paid, or by agreeing to forgo it if not paid. Such an arrangement was called Khula, and by it the marriage tie would be absolutely dissolved", (Abdur Rahim, Muhammadan . Jurisprudence, pp. 9-11).

So much for marriage and divorce among the Arabs before Islam. But they even practised female infanticide, as is clear

from the following:-

"In proportion to his eagerness to have a son, an Arab father regarded the birth of a daughter as a calamity, partly because of the degraded status of women. Even in the time of the Prophet female infanticide was prevalent, and many fathers used to bury their daughters alive as soon as born", (Abdur Rahim, op. cit., p. 12; and Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. pp. 19-21).

As regards the right of the Arab woman to hold property, we find "that though a woman was debarred from inhenting, she was under no disability in the matter of owning property. Anything that she might receive from her husband as dower or by gift from him or her parents and relatives was absolutely hers. Sometimes women acquired riches by trade and commerce, and some of them were owners of lands and houses. But neither the person nor possessions of a woman were safe unless she was under the protection of her parents or some male relatives or her husband. It her protector proved rapacious or dishonest, she hardly had any remedy", (Abdur Rahim, op. cit., p. 12).

Regarding Succession and Inheritance, the customary laws of the heathen Arabs were as follows:—

"On the death of an Arab his possessions, such as had not been disposed of, devolved on his male heirs capable of bearing arms, all females and minors being excluded. The heirship was

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tasted of the tree, their evil inclinations became manifest to them, and they both began to cover themselves with the leaves of the garden, and their Lord called out to them: Did I not forbid you both from that tree and say to you that the devil is your open enemy!", (vii. 22).

The above texts destroy once for all the story that it was Eve, and Eve alone, who was responsible for the banishment of Adam and Eve from the Garden of Eden. In this allegorical parture both man and woman are equally culpable. Both had commutted sin. Both crave the forgiveness of the Almighty, as is shown from the following verse:—

"They said: Our Lord! We have been unjust to ourselves, and if Thou forgive us not, and have (not) mercy on us, we shall certainly be of the losers", (vii. 23).

In one stroke Islam has banished the stigma from woman that she is man's eternal seducer and tempter and that but for her man would be pure and sinless. In this respect alone, I submit, Islam stands far and above the conception of woman according to Paganism, Hinduism, Buddhism, Judaism and Christianity. Woman is not solely responsible for the sins of mankin i, as we have seen above, but that both man' and woman are liable to err and make mistakes.

CHAPTER XIIIO

DUTIES OF GUARDIANS

THE duties of guardians towards orphans are made clear from the following verses:—

- (a) "And give the orphans their property, and do not substitute worthless (things) for (their) good (ones), and do not devour their property (as an addition to your own property); this is surely a great crime". (iv. 2).
- (b) "And do not give away your property which Allah has made for you (a means) of support to the weak of understanding, and maintain them out of (the profits of) it, and clothe them and speak to them words of honest advice", (iv. 5).

By "your property" in the above verse is meant the property of the orphans which is under the guardians' control. The above verse lays down the principle of the Court of Wards. It requires guardianship in the case of all who are of weak understanding, whether minors or others.

(c) "And test the orphans until they attain puberty; then if you find in them maturity of intellect, make over to them their property, and do not consume it hastily and extravagantly, lest they attain to full age; and whoever is rich, let him abstain altogether, and whoever is poor, let him eat reasonably; then when you

that over to them then piper vision witness in their presence and Allah in consider a Resken in over the

The above viscontrus in the guirlian the duty of processing the property in the property may be given exertly and the wind the property may be given exertly and the viscontrus of the property may be a sked and the viscontrus of the other and when the specific viscontrus of the other and when the specific viscontrus of the property of the cult the name of the property of the cult then the second disputes and aligned in the property of the trusted has been all seconds to conclude the concept of the culture of

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TREATMENT OF WOMEN

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their ways, a way is opened for them by Allah and they regain their liberty; if they do not, the curtailment should be extended till they die. There is no proof for Palmer's assertion that "women taken in adultery or fornication were, at the beginning of Islam, literally immured", (Muhammad Ali, Holy Qur-dn, D. 204).

(b) "And as for the two who are guilty of indecency from among you, give them both a slight punishment; then if they repent and amend, turn aside from them, surely Allah is oft returning (to mercy), the Merciful", (iv. 16)

Here the verse clearly means both the man and the woman, in I that the nature of the punishment is again left indefinite to the with the nature of the offence committed.

- O you who believel it is not lawful for you that you should take women as herilage against (their) will; and do not straiten them in order that you may take part of whit you have given them, unless they are guilty of minifest indecency; and treat them kindly; then if you hate them, it may be that you dishke a thing with Allah has placed abundant good in it", (iv. 19).
- (d) 'And marry not women whom your fathers married, except what has all adv passed, this surely is indecent and Enteful, and it is an ord way", (A 22)

If we analyse the above two verses, we get the following aniles -

- (1) They dony the right of the heir to inherit the deceased man's widows, which, as we have noticed, existed among the pre-Islamic Arabs.
- (2) They deap the right of the heir to deprive the widows of their dowry unless they were guilty of hatred and

TREATMENT OF WOMEN

desertion of the husband, or of doing harm to the husband and his family. In such cases, the fault being on the part of the woman, she may be required to return her dowry wholly or in part, (Muhammad Ali, op. oil., pp. 205-6)

(3) The heirs of the deceased are commanded to treat the widows with kindness, and not to despise them.

- (s) "And if you wish to have (one) when in the place of another and you have given one of them a heap of gold, then take not from it anything; would you take it by slandering (her) and (doing her) manifest wrong?", (iv. 20)
- (f) "And how can you take it when one of you has already gone in to the other and they have made with you a firm covenant?", (iv. 21).

Both the above verses remedy another evil which was common in the days of ignorance. It was notorious that if a married man desired to marry another woman, he would accuse his first wife of gross immorality, thus compelling her to obtain a divorce by paying a large sum of money. This would be a breach of the marriage covenant, and the Qur-án nightly forbade it.

It is also noteworthy that the Qur-an lays great stress on the fair name and reputation of women. For instance, it says:—

(g) "And those who accuse free women, then do not bring four witnesses, flog them (giving) eighty stripes, and do not admit any evidence from them ever; and these it is that are the transgressors", (xxiv. 4).

Here the accusation is against unmarried women, and the punishment for it is prescribed, which is severe. The following

two verses deal with the accusation of the wife by the husband and vice versa.—

- (h) "And (as for) those who accuse their wives and have no witnesses except themselves, the evidence of one of these (should be taken) four times, bearing Allah to witness that he is most surely of the truthful ones", (xxiv. 6).
- (i) "And the fifth (time) that the curse of Allah be on him if he is one of the hars", (xxiv. 7).
- (j) "And it shall avert the chastisement from her if she testify four times, bearing Allah to witness that he is most surely one of the liars", (xxiv. 8).
- And the fifth (time) that the wrath of Allah be on her if he is one of the truthful", (xxiv. 9).

Verses (h) to (k) relate to cases when either the husband or the wife accuses the other of infidelity but cannot produce witnesses in proof of his or her allegation. In such cases, a divorce is effected, as neither party is punishable for the accusation which is based simply on oath against oath. In this connection it must be noted that if the husband accuses his wife of undelity the wife may claim divorce by a suit, but laan, or the mere imprecation or accusation does not ipso facto operate as a divorce, (Mulla, Mahomedan Law (8th ed.), p. 194).

(I) "Men are the maintainers (Qawwamun) of women, because Allah has made some of them to excel others and because they spend out of their property; the good women are therefore obedient, guarding the unseen as Allah has guarded; and (as to) those on whose part you fear desertion, admonish them, and leave them alone in the steeping places and beat them, them if they obey you, do not seek a way against them, arely Allah, is High, Great ", (iv. 34).

TREATMENT OF WOMEN

This verse is often quoted to prove that the Prophet treated women unfairly by giving men superior powers and rights. Let me give you its commentary by Muhammad Ali:—

"The significance of quowam means he maintained her and managed her affair, having charge of her affair; hence he is said to be her gawwam, i.e. maintainer. Similarly, it means he maintained the orphan or the child. Hence by the men being quiwamun is only meant that they are the maintainers of women, and the reason given is that Allah has made some to excel others, i.e. the man excels the woman in constitution and physique, while the woman excels the man in beauty and delicacy of structure. . . . Obedience here signifies obedience to Allah. This significance of the verse is made clear by a comparison with xxxiii. 31 and 35; and lxvi. 5. The gnarding of the unseen is a euphemism for guarding the husband's rights. The two justifications of a good wife, as given here, are her piety or obedience to Allah and chastity, i.e. she must be careful of her duty to Allah and to her husband. . . . The remedy pointed out when the wife's desertion is feared is threefold. At first she is only to be admonished. If she desists, the evil is mended, but if she persists in the wrong course her bed is to be separated. If she still persists, chastisement is permitted as a last resort. Regarding this last remedy two things must, however, be borne in mind. Firstly, it is a mere permission, and sayings of the Holy Prophet make it clear that, though allowed, it was discouraged in practice. Thus the Prophet is reported (by Iman Fakhruddin Razi) to have said, on the complaint of certain women as to ill-treatment by their husbands: 'You will not find these men as the best among you.' According to Shafai, it is preferable not to resort to the chastisement of the wife. In fact, as the injunctions of the Qur-an are wide in their scope, the example of the Holy Prophet and his constant exhortations for kind treatment towards women, so much so that he made a man's good treat-

ment of his wife the gauge of his goodness in general—'the best of you is he who is vest to his wife'—show clearly that this permission is meant only for that type of men and women who belong to a low grade of society. Secondly, even this permission cannot be adopted indiscriminately, for sayings of the Hely Prophet make it quit evident that chastisement, when resorted to in extreme cases, must be vity slight. I'Alien's that it may be with a teath livel, call it hereif or something like it", (Muhammad Ali, op. cil., pp. 211-12).

In this connection I may point out the view of English Common Law on the right of the husband to chastise his wife. Blackstone, writing in the eighteenth century, says:—

"The husband also (by the old law) might give his wife moderate corrected. Ica, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour the law thought it reasonable to intrust him with this power of restraining her, by domestic chastisement, in the same medication that a man is allowed to correct his apprentices or chadran, for whom the master or parent is also hable in some cases to answer. But this power of correction was confored wid in reasonable bounds, and the husband was prolabited from using any violence to his wife, . . . The Und I as give the hi shand the same, or a larger, authority over los wife allowing him for some misdemeanours flagellis et justilus airder ert rare uxorem (i.e. a husband may heat his wife: ith whips is entirel sharply). But with us, in the politer reign of Charles the See ad, this power of correction began to be doubted, and a wife may now have security of the peace against her husband, or, in return, a husband against his wife. Yet the lower rank of people, who were always fond of the old Common Law, still claim, and exert, their ancient privilege; and the courts of law well still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her likely in case of any gross misbehaviour", (Blackstone, Commintaries on the Laws of England, vol. i. p. 444).

TREATMENT OF WOMEN

Clearly, then, this permissive use of chastisement in the time of Muhammad among a savage and barbarous people was considered necessary. To-day, just as in England this right has become a "mere legal curiosity," so in almost all Islamic countries the power of chastisement has fallen into decay and never exercised as of right.

CHAPTER XV

MARRIAGE IN ISLAM

CONCERNING the question of marriage the Qur-an says :-

and your sisters and your paternal and maternal aunts and brothers' daughters and sisters' daughters and your mothers that have suckled you and your foster-sisters and mothers of your wives and your p-daughters who are in your guardianship, (born)

vour wives to whom you have gone in; but if

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We note a my with the conditions prevailing in Arabia of Is' m. we beeved that the limits of relationship my newly marriage was prohibited were narrow and defined the latter that the wed the Magian religion married even their was daughters and sisters. All this the Qur-an forbids, and daughters and sisters. All this the Qur-an forbids, and

the 'And all married women except those whom your right hands possess; this is Allah's ordinance to you, and langual for you are (all women) besides those, it will that you seek (them) with your property,

MARRIAGE IN ISLAM

taking (them) in marriage hot committing fornication. Then as to those whom you profit by (by marrying) give them their downes as appointed; and there is no blame on you about what you mutually agree after what is appointed (of dowry); surely Allah is Knowing, Wise", (iv. 24).

The above verse prohibits marriage with women who are already married to Muslims. By the phrase "except those whom your right hands possess" is meant female captives of war. The Qur-an legalizes marriage with such women even though they may be married at the time of their capture, provided they become Muslims, since Islam forbids marriage with an idolatress, by the verse (ii. 221) which opens—"And do not marry the idolatresses until they believe..."

(c) "And whoever among you has not within his power ampleness of means to marry free believing women, then (he may marry) of those whom your right hands possess from among your believing maidens; and Allah knows best your faith. You are (sprung) one from the other; so marry them with the permission of their masters, and give them their downies justly, they being chaste, not fornicating, nor receiving paramours; and when they are taken in marriage, then if they are guilty of indecency, they shall suffer half the punishment which is inflicted upon free women. This is for him among you who fears falling into evil; and that you abstain is better for you, and Allah is Forgiving, Merciful", (iv. 25).

The above verse may be analysed, and means as follows :-

(1) Maiden captives of war may be married if they become Muslims, when the man is poor and cannot afford to marry a free-born woman.

- (2) If such maidens belong to others, then the permission of their masters is necessary.
- (3) Marriage with such maidens is made obligatory and also the giving of dowries.
- (4) The taking of such maidens as concubines or mistresses is forbidden, as it would be fornication, which is expressly forbidden by this verse.

This verse clearly destroys the common charge hurled at 1 me that it sanctions concubinage. Nothing can be clearer than the works in the raicating, nor receiving paramours."

Azona the forms to be a may be cited to show that Islam forms to be a set to clearest terms:—

- ta) 'And warra to among you who are single and those an are fit and, your male slaves and female slaves; at they are made), Allah will make them free from want at of His Grace; and Allah is Amply-giving, Kn with: (NNV 32).
- th, 'And not it a who do not find a match keep chaste mult Man tank, them free from want out of His Grace and do not compel your slave-girls to presentation when they desire to keep chaste in order to seek the paul go t of this world's life", (xxiv. 33).

Reveiting to chap iv 25, given above, we may note the remaining Characteristic —

then only but the pure himment that is normally inflicted on the worn n may be inflicted upon them, the reason being that their captivity is enough punishment for them and the full penalty of the law need not be inforced.

CHAPTER XVI

CONSENT TO MARRIAGE NECESSARY

(a) "Under the Muhammadan law, according to all the schools, the power of the father to give his children in marriage without their consent can be exercised in the case of sons until thy have all and their beliefer terpines, we not your emarcipated, so for as the present in the area, and, from the patria potestis, and it is the river a concert the mesalves in marriag. Persons out sate parts have a uncert the same legal disabilities as in other systems of law. They cannot enter into any contract or legal transactions without the consent of their natural guardians. . . . Puberty is presumed on the completion of the fifteenth year, according to most of the schools, unless there is evidence to the contrary. As a general rule, however, a person who completes the filteenth year is considered, without distinction of sex, to be adult and sui juris, possessed of the capacity to enter into legal transactions", (Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. pp. 278-9).

Ameer Ali, quoting the Hedaya, says :-

- (b) "It is not lawful for a guardian to force an adult virgin into marriage. Nons, not even a father, nor the sovereign, can lawfully contract a woman in marriage who is adult and of sound mind, without her permission, whether she be a virgin or not", (Ameer Ali, op. cit., p. 279).
- (c) "Though the right of Jabr (i.e. the right of marrying minors without their consent) is theoretically an absolute right, there are numerous conditions attached to its exercise. The

father, without any difference among the jurists, is prohibited from marrying his child to those who are diseased, to slaves, idiots and other ineligible persons. . . . In fact, the law is particularly attentive to the interests of the child, . . . It takes care that the right of Jabr should never be exercised to the prejudice of the infinit, my act of the father which is likely to injure the interests of the minor is considered illegal and entitles the Qazi or Judge to interfere in order to prevent the completion of such act, or if complete, to annul it", (Ameet Al: op. cit., pp. 280-81).

(1) Lyon in the case of a marriage contracted by the lather or grantfuller as guardian, the presumption that it is for the benefit of the minor is not conclusive, and such a matthage is liable to be set aside in certain cases, where it is plantly unless the and injurious to the minor. . . . The accepted view (of the poinsts) seems to be that if the father was to t a man of prop 1 judgment and was of reckless character, and matted line manor daughter to a man of immoral habits it is hable to be set aside . . ." (Abdur Rahim, op. cit., p. 332).

The above right of Jubi is vested in the father or grandfather and we have seen how qualified and restricted this right is But where the minor is given in marriage by any relative other than the father or grandfather, the law on the subject is as follows -

(c) "Where a minor is contracted in marriage by any

person other than the father or the grandfather, such minor on attaining puterty has an absolute right to ratify or rescind the contract. But the miner has an opti n even in the case of a marriage contracted by a father or grandfather, if the latter was a produgal or adducted to evil ways or the marriage was manifestly to the minor's disadvantage", (Ameer Ali, op cit . p 290)

The above right vested in the minor is called the Option of Puberty

CHAPTER XVII

POLYGAMY IN ISLAM

We have seen that polygamy was prevalent among all the nations of antiquity, and is even now unrestricted among the Hindus and the Buddhists. We have also observed the state of Arabia before the advent of Islam-its gross licentiousness and depravity. Let me give you the law of the Qur-an on this subject:-

(a) " And if you fear that you cannot act equitably towards orphans, then marry such women as seem good to you, two, three and four, but if you fear that you will not do justice (between them), then (marry) only one or what your right hands possess; this is more proper, that you may not deviate from the right course", (iv. 3).

This is one of the most important verses of the Qur-an. I give below the views of several eminent authorities on this subject. To begin with Muhammad Ali:-

(1) "This passage permits polygamy under certain circum stances; it does not enjoin it, nor even permit it un conditionally. . . . It is admitted that this chapte (entitled An-nisa, or Women) was revealed to guid the Muslims under the conditions which followed th battle of Uhud, and the last portion of the last chapter deals with the battle. Now in that batt seventy men out of seven hundred Muslims ha been slain, and this decimation had largely d

creased the number of males who, being the breadwinners, were the natural guardians and supporters of the females. The number was likely to suffer a still greater diminution in the battles which had yet to be fought, while the number of women would be increased by the addition of prisoners of war. Thus many orphans would be left in the charge of widows, who would find it difficult to procure the necessary means of support. Hence in the first verse of this chapter the Muslims are enjoined to respect the ties of relationship, inasmuch as they are told that they are all in fact related to each other. In the second verse, the care of orphans is particularly enjoined. In the third verse (quoted ab : we related they could not do justice to the up was in y might marry the widows, whose c ildren will is become their own children, and as the name of the men was now much greater than the number i men, they were permitted to marry ev n two or the or four women. It would thus be coar that the promission to have more than one wife was given und t the peculiar circumstances of the Misum Swifty to n existing, and the Prophet's action in mair...ig w. . ws as well as the example of many of his company us, corroborates this statement. Marriage with orpian girls is also sanctioned in this pussage, for timere were the same difficulties in the case of orphan girls as in the case of widows, and the words are general. It may be added here that polygamy in Islam is both in theory and in practice an exception, not a rule, and as an exception it is a remedy for many of the evils especially prevalent in European soci is It is not only the preponderance of females over males that necessitates polygamy in

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certain cases, but there is a variety of other circumstances which require polygamy to be adopted under exceptional circumstances, not only for the moral but also for the physical welfare of society. Prostitution, the great evil of civilization, which is a val canker, with its concomitant increase of bastardy, is practically unknown to countries where polygamy is allowed as a remedial measure... By What your right hands possess are meant the females who were taken prisoners in war, and such marriages are legalized." as we have noticed above, (Muhammad Ali, op. cit., pp. 199-200).

Taking the above verse in conjunction with the following-

(b) "And you have it not in your power to do justice between your wives, even though you may covet (d), but be not disinclined (from one) with total disinclination, so that you leave her as it were in suspense; and if you effect a reconciliation and guard (against evil), then surely Allah is Forgiving, Mercuful" (iv. 129) —

the resulting view of the Qur-an on polygamy is as follows :-

- (i) That marriage with more than one woman is merely permissive. (It was sanctioned after the battle of Uhud.)
 - (ii) That the number of wives a man can have at the same time is limited to four (Islam thus restricting
- (iii) That where the husband fears that he cannot do justice to more than one wife, he must not marry more than one woman at the same time (all the above in verse iv. 3).
- (iv) That it is beyond human power to do justice leader all

the wives, although man may covet the desire to do so (clear from verse iv. 129).

- (v) That in spite of this human failing, one ought to do one's best in treating them impartially.
- (vi) That it is "more proper that a man have one wife, so that he may not deviate from the right course" (iv. 3), the course of impartiality and equity. Thus we see that Islam indirectly, but in unequivocal language, deprecates polygamy; and finally—
- (vii) That it is an abnormal law, for abnormal states of society, and though the permission is there, it is not generally availed of, as is clear from Howard, cited below:—
- (2) "Where polygamy exists it is sometimes the chiefs alone who are permitted to have a plurality of wives. Resides, just as in the case of polyandry, almost everywhere it is confined to a very small part of the permitted to a very small part of the permitted to a very small part of the permitted to a very small part of the lamining all Molimon can people, in Asia and Europe, as well as in Africa' Ninety-five per cent, of the Melammedans of India, for instance, are said to be missing in. st. and in Persia, it is reported, only 'two per cert of the permittion enjoy the questionable linguity of a plurality of wives'." (Howard, History of Matronomial Institutions, vol. i. p. 142; and Ameer Alimonedan Latin 1 pp. 24.5)
- (3) "H (M mathin a) restrained polygamy by limiting the maxim in ambit of contemporaneous marriages and by making absolute equaly towards all oil gatory in the man. It is worthy of note that the clause in the Keran niv 3) which contains the permission to contract four contemporaneous marriages is immediately fellowed by a sentence which cuts down the

POLYGAMY IN ISLAM

significance of the preceding passage to its normal and legitimate dimensions. The former passage says: 'You may marry two, three or four wives, but no more.' The subsequent lines declare: 'But if you cannot deal equitably and justly with all, you shall marry only one.' The extreme importance of this proviso, bearing especially in mind the meaning which is attached to the word equity (adl) in the Koranic teachings, has not been lost sight of by the great thinkers of the Muslim world", (Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. p. 42).

(4) "The Muhammadan law undoubtedly contemplates monogamy as the ideal to be aimed at, but concedes to a man the right to have more than one wife, not exceeding four, at one and the same time, provided he is able to deal with them on a footing of equality and justice. This is in accord with the scheme of Islamic legislation which sets up certain moral ideals to be gradually realized by the community, positively forbidding only such acts as must clearly be injurious to social and individual life at all times", (Abdur Rahim, op. cit., pp. 327-8).

It is suggested that the above Qur-anic texts, supplemented by the views of certain well-known authorities, clearly destroy the charge that is so often made by the ignorant that Islam enjoins polygamy or that it sanctions unrestricted polygamy. No religion, in my submission, has achieved the betterment of society with greater success than Islam. Why? Because the laws of Islam are practical; they have been framed with a view to meet both the normal and abnormal needs of human society. They are applicable to all states of society, from the purely primitive to the highly civilized. Their-very elasticity have been the chief cause of the success of Islam.

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CHAPILE AVIII

DIVORCE IN ISLAIM

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(1) Those who swear that they was not go in to their wives, should want four months so if they go back, then Allah is surely bergiving, Meterial ", (u=224)

By "going back" is meant the re-establishment of conjugal relators. If before the expany of the period mentioned,

the husband and wife resume marital relations, then Allah is willing to forgive the faults of either or both.

(c) "And if they have resolved on a divorce (Talaga), then Allah is surely Hearing, Knowing", (ii. 227).

Muhammad Ali, commenting on the above verse says :-

"Talag is an infinitive noun from talagat, said of a woman, meaning she was left free to go her way, or become separated from her husband, and signifies the dissolving of the marriage fic. . . . Divorce is one of the institutions of Islam regarding which much misconception prevails, so much so that even the Islamic law, as administered in the British Courts in India, is not free from these misconceptions. The chief features of the Islamic law of divorce, as dealt with in the Holy Qur-an, will be noticed under the particular verses dealing with them. Here I may state that the Islamic law has many points of advantage as compared with both the Jewish and Christian laws as formulated in Deuteronomy and Matthew. The chief feature of improvement is that the wife can claim a divorce according to the Islamic law, neither Moses nor Christ conterring that right on the woman, though it is to be regretted that this very feature is the one that is not recognized in India And the feature of divorce is that it is elastic and does not strictly limit the cause of divorce. In fact, if the civilized nations of Europe and America, who own the same religion are at the same stage of advancement, and have an afamily of feeling on most social and moral questions, cannot agree as to the causes of divorce, how could a universal religion like Islam, which was meant for all ages and all countries, for people in the lowest grade of civilization as well as those at the top, Limit those causes, which must vary with the varying conditions of humanity and society. . . . It may also be added here that, though divorce is allowed by Islam if sufficient cause exists, yet the right is to be exercised under

DIVORCE IN ISLAM

exceptional circumstances. The Qur-án itself approves of the Holy Prophet insisting on Zaid not divorcing his wife, notwithstanding a discussion of a sufficiently long standing (xxxiii, 37). (And the Holy Prophet's memorable words of all the things which have been permitted to men divorce is the most haled by Allah' (reported by Abu Dawud), will always act as a strong checken any loose interpretation of the words of the Holy Qur-án. There are cases on record (given by Bukhari) in which he actually pronounced divorce to be illegal", (Muhammad Ali, op. cit., p. 104).)

(d) "And the divorced women should keep themselves in waiting for three courses; and it is not lawful for them that they should conceal what Allah has created in their wombs, if they believe in Allah and the last day; and their husbands have a better right to take them back in the meanwhile if they wish for reconcliation; and they (women) have rights similar to those against them in a just manner, and the men are a degree above them (meaning physically), and Allah is Mighty, Wise", (ii. 228).

"The period of waiting or iddat, forms the first condition in the Islamic law of divorce. But for cases in which marriage is not consummated, no period of waiting is necessary (as is clear from xxxiii. 49). The period of waiting is really a period of temporary separation, during which conjugal relations may be re-established. This period of temporary separation serves as a check upon divorce, and it is the second point mentioned by the Qur-an. This is the best safeguard against a misuse of divorce, for in this way only such unions would be ended by divorce as really deserve to be ended, being devoid of the faintest spark of love. Thus, while the Islamic law of divorce makes every possible provision for love to assert itself, it requires the dissolution of the marriage when it is proved

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that mutual love is not possible. The rights of momen against their husbands are stated to be similar to those which the husbands have against their wives. . . . The change in this respect was nearly a revolutionizing one, for the Atabs hithertoregarded women as mere chattels, and now the women were given a position equal in all respects to that of unit, for they were declared to have rights similar those which were exercised against them. This declaration brought about a revolution not only in Arabia but in the whole world, for the countity of the rights of women with those of men was never previously recognized by any nation or any reformer; nav. it is not to this day recognized among the most civilized nations. The woman could no longer be discarded at the will of her 'lord,' but she could either claim equality as a wife or demand divorce. The statement that 'men are a degree above them' Las no rodhly the rights asserted in the previous passage, but refers to quite a different aspect of the question which is make that in it 14" (as explained above). (Muhammad Ali, op ou pp 1 45 and also Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vel ii pp 527 500)

CHAPTER XIX

DIVORCE IN ISLAM

(Continued)

(e) "Divorce may be (pronounced) twice; then keep (them) in good fellowship or let (them) go with kindness; and it is not lawful for you to take (away) any part of what you have given them, unless both fear that they cannot keep within the limits of Allah; then if you fear that they cannot keep within the limits of Allah, there is no blame on them for what she gives up to become free thereby. These are the limits of Allah, so do not exceed them, and whoever exceeds the limits of Allah, these it is that are the unjust", (ii. 229).

A very important verse indeed!

"The third rule regarding divorce is that the resocable divorce of the previous verse can be pronounced only twice. In the days of ignorance, a man used to divorce his wife and take her back within the prescribed time, even though he might do this a thousand times", (as we have noticed above). "Islam reformed this practice by allowing a revocable divorce twice, so that the period of waiting in each of these two cases might serve as a period of temporary separation during which conjugal relations could be re-established. The fourth point is that the husband must make his choice after the second divorce either to retain her permanently or to bring about a final separation. The object of a true marriage union is indi-

cated in the simple words keep them in good fellowship, and where, owing to discussions, it is impossible to remain in good fellowship, then the man must let the woman go with kindness," and where the marriage has been a failure, "it is both in the interests of the husband and the wife and in the interests of society itself that such a union should be brought to a termination, so that the parties may seek a free-anion. But even in taking this final step, the woman must be treated kindly. . . . The full payment of the dowry to the woman is the fifth rule relating to the Islamic law of divorce, and it serves as a very strong check upon the husband in resorting to unnecessary divorce. The dowry is usually sufficiently large to make divorce a step which can only be adopted as a last measure", (Muhammad Ah, op. cit., p. 106).

The sixth rule with regard to divorce is the right of the wefe to come a divorce. This is technically called Khula', "Amor) the relations of the world, it is one of the distingraphed chareful to of Islam that it gives the wife the same ught to abuse a divorce as it gives the husband to pronomer one it do a willing to forgo the whole or part of the diwing I be case of Jamrelah, wife of Sabit bin Qais, is one that is repeated in numerous reports of the highest authority. This it was the wife who was dissatisfied with the marriage. There was not even a quarrel, as she plainly stated is liet conjugate to the Prophet: 'I do not find any fault with fan in account of his morals (i.e. his treatment), or he religion. Se only hated him. And the Holy Prophet had her on seed en condition that she returned to her bushing the garden which he had made over to her as her down in partia a Bickeau. It is even said that we are well's love for the wife was as in ersons her noted for time. If then, a woman could cause a divorce for no reason other than the unsuital areas of the match, she had certainly the right to claim one if there was ill-treatment on the part of

DIVORCE IN ISLAM

the husband or any other satisfactory reason, and among the early Mushims it was an established right. Even now it is a right which is maintained in many Islamic countries", (Muhammad Ali, op. cit., p. 106; Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. pp. 567-578).

"The words if you fear evidently refer to the properly constituted authorities, and this brings us to the seventh point with regard to the law of divorce, viz. that the authorities can interfere in the matter, and cases are actually on record in which a wrong done by an unjust divorce was mended by the authorities", (Muhammad Ali, op. cit., p. 107).

The last point to note in connection with the above verse (ii. 229) is that Allah forbids anyone to go beyond the limits He has imposed, and if either does so, then he or she is unjust.

(f) "So if he divorces her she shall not be lawful to him afterwards until she marries another husband; then if he divorces her there is no blame on them both if they return to each other (by marriage) if they think they can keep within the limits of Allah, and these are the limits of Allah which He makes clear for a people who know ", (ii. 230).

"After the irrevocable divorce is pronounced the husband cannot re-marry the divorced wife until she has been married elsewhere and divorced, and this is the eighth point with regard to the law of divorce. The verse abolishes the immoral custom of haldlah, a temporary marriage gone through with no other object than that of legalizing the divorced wife for the first husband, a custom prevalent in the days of ignorance, but abolished by the Holy Prophet, according to a report which speaks of his having cursed those who indulge in the evil practice. There must be a genuine marriage and a genuine divorce. This restriction make, the third pronouncement of

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DIVORCE IN ISLAM

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on the express words of Muhammad: 'If a woman be prejudiced by a marriage, let it be broken off' (Bukhari)", (Ameer Ali, op. cit., vol. ii. p. 581).

The fifth kind of divorce is a divorce pronounced by the wife against the husband in virtue of delegated authority to the wife by the husband.

"An agreement made whether before of after marriage by which it is provided that the wife should be at liberty to divorce herself from her husband under certain specified contingencies is valid, if the conditions are of a reasonable nature and are not opposed to the policy of the Mohammedan law. When such an agreement is made, the wife, may, at any time after the happening of the contingency, repudiate herself in the exercise of the power, and a divorce will then take effect to the sine extent as if the talaq had been pronounced by the land of the power so delegated to the wife is not revocable, and as any exercise the power even after institution of a sint a unit for for restitution of conjugal rights", (Mulla, op al., p. 1,1. Ameer Ali, op. sit., vol. ii. pp. 554-5; and Abdut Rahm of all.

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It sam up, the principles of the law of divorce in Islam are as fellows -

- (a) Islam a comizes the necessity of divorce, as it is indispersable for the maintenance of healthy society and the general happiness of human relations.
- (') Islam does not give unfettered power to the husband to diverce his wife. Various forms of restraint have been placed on the exercise of such power by him
- (c) The true spirit of Islam is against the exercise of this power without sufficient cause. The Prophet's con-

DIVORCE IN ISLAM

demnation of easy divorce deters to this day those who would like to flout the law

- (d) For the first time in human history, Islam gave to the wife a corresponding right to divorce herself from her husband in cases where their life is one of continued misery. In this respect, again, Islam treats women far more justly and equitably than other religions.
- (e) Finally, Islam faces the facts of human frailties and intolerance in conjugal relations quite frankly. It does not idealize the marital tie to the extent of condemning the marined couple, in cases of disagreement, to eternal bitterness and misery. It regards marriage as a civil contract and not a sacrament, with the result that like all other civil contracts it can be terminated under certain circumstances. Compare this with the attitude of Hinduism and the Roman Catholic Church, and one can safely assert that it is Islam, and Islam alone, that offers the ordinary man and woman greater chances of happiness. But in spite of the permission to have recourse to divorce, it is very rarely taken advantage of, and Mushim marriages are, on the whole, quite successful and harmonious.

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CHAPT R XX

REMARRIAGE OF WIDOWS AND DIVORCEES

Titl following verse et ables diverted winten to remarry .

(a "A) I when you have diverced wemen and they have each I their term (f waiting) then do not prevent them from marrying their (prospective) husban is when they agree among themselves in a lawful manner..." (u. 232).

The right of maintenance of a divorced woman during her iddat has been dealt with in the subsequent chapter on the "Proprietary and Personal Rights of Women."

The permission for Widows to remarry is contained in the following verses. -

(a, "And (as fer) those of you who die and leave wives behind, they should keep themselves in waiting for four months and ten days, then when they have fully attained their term, there is no blame on you for what they do for themselves in a lawful mann 1, and Allan is aware of what you do ", or 233),

(b) "And there is no blame on you respecting that which you speak indirectly in the asking of (such, women in marriage or keep (the promise) concealed within your minds..." (ii 235)

REMARRIAGE OF WIDOWS AND DIVORCEES

The permission for widows to remark was denicly as of fight in the days of ignorance. As we have seen, the hears of the deceased man macritic lis widows. All this, Islam reforms by giving to the widow the right to choose her own spouse without interference from the heirs. Her rights of inheritance are dealt with in the following chapter.

The reason for the witing is that the divorced woman or the widow may be pregnant, in which case the period is extended to the time of delivery. There should be no doubt as to what the real father of the carellar which is necessary in determining questions of inheritance and other names of personal succession.

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CHAPILR XXII

PROPRIETARY AND PERSONAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN

(a) "O Seat who bearvet an not devour your property among yearselves falsels, except that it be by training by your mutual consent and do not kill your people surery Alahas Majorial to your a way)

Though the words are general, yet the verse is especially directed to guard women's rights to property, for usually it was the woman whose property was usurped and this unjust aggressen is forlidden, as a also occar from the following yet es-

- (b) "And whoever does this aggressively and impusity, We will och east him into fire and this is easy to Allah", (iv. 30).
- (c) 'And do not cover that Ly which Allah has made some of you excel others. Men shall have the benefit of what they earn and women shall have the benefit of what they earn, and ask Ailah of His grace, surely Allah knew, all thus, s', (iv., 2).

The exercise clearly entry so must, separate connecting of freperty, whether married is not and men are enjoined not to deal unfauly with their preperty. If unmarried, her relatives or guardians must preserve it for not, and if married, the husband should not resail her property as his ewn. If by her

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PROPRIETARY AND PERSONAL RIGHTS

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(Abdur Ruhim, op. cit., pp. 334-5).

"The undow's class for dower is a debt payable out of the estate of her husband, and it must, like all other debts, be paid before legacies and before distribution of the inheritance," and when "she is in property of her deceased husband, but it is to property of her deceased husband, but it is to be and if not, but it is to be and if not, but it is to be and if not, but it is to relate that for each if it is the deceased in the late of the late

(d) Maintenance during I that

is "And for the do need a men (too) provision must be made are noting to a age; (this is) a duty on those who pairly against each and 241

It arms that the Que in also, allows maintenance to usdows for a year, besides their right to intent, as is shown from the following veries:

a) And those of you who die and leave wives behind (making a bequest in favour of their wives of main-

PROPRIETARY AND PERSONAL RIGHTS

tenance for a year without turning (them) out, then if they themselves go away, there is no blame on you for what they do of lawful deeds by themselves, and Allah is Mighty, Wise", (ii. 240).

But in British India this right of the widow to maintenance is not recognized, as the Courts regard it as having been abrogated by subsequent werses. Muhammad Ali, however, is of the opinion that the above verse has not been abrogated by any other verse in the Qur-an. On the contrary, he believes that this verse is in the nature of an additional provision for the widows, (Muhammad Ali, op. cit., p. 112; and Mulla, op. cit., p. 174).

CHAPTER XXIII

CONCLUSION

SPEAKING of the legal reforms of Muhammad, Ameer Ali says:-

"The whole history of Mahomedan legislation is a standing rebuke to those who consider that the position of women under the Islamic laws is one of exceptional severity and degradation."

One of the great results of the new legislation, therefore, was to raise women in the scale of civilization, by elevating their moral and social position, and giving the widow, the mother, the daughters and sisters, heritable rights. . . . "The Prophet of Islam enforced as one of the essential teachings of his creed—Respect for nomen; and his followers, in their admiration for the virtues of his celebrated daughter (Fatima), proclaimed her 'the Lady of Paradise' (Khatoone Jannat) as the tepresentative of her sex. . . Mohammed secured to women in his system rights which they had not before possessed; he allowed them privileges the value of which will be more fully appreciated as time advances. He placed them on a footing of perfect equality with men in the exercise of all legal powers and functions", (Ameer Ali, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. pp. 24-6).

Among the Arabs women were, and are, still free. It cannot be denied that the Qur-án gives women the right to appear in public, as the following verses clearly show:—

CONCLUSION

(a) "And say to the believing women that they cast down their looks and guard their private parts and not display their ornaments except what appears thereof, and let them wear their head-coverings over their bosoms, and not display their ornaments except to their husbands or their fathers . . . and let them not strike their feet so that what they hide of their ornaments may be known . . ." (xxiv. 31).

(b) "Say to the believing men that they cast down their looks and guard their private parts; that is purer for them; surely Allah is aware of what they do".

(xxiv. 30).

Here we get similar injunctions to both men and women. Both are required to cast down their looks and guard their private parts. Had the Qur-an forbidden women to appear in public, there would have been no necessity for it to order men " to cast down their looks." It would have been meaningless. Muhammad Ali, commenting on the above verses, remarks:—

"To guard the relations between males and females and to check a too free intermingling of men and women, the Qur-an now lays down another injunction in addition to that which requires both sexes to go abroad with their looks cast down.

... But women must observe some further directions. The injunction which relates to women in particular is to keep their ornaments concealed. There is a difference of opinion as to what zinal, or ornament, means. According to some it includes the beauty of the body, while according to others it is exclusively applied to external ornaments and adornments. The use of the same word in the concluding portion of the verse (xxiv. 31)—let them not strike their feet so that what they hide of their ornaments may be known—supports the latter view, as the only ornaments that can be known by the striking of the feet are external

beauty of the body in the significance of rinal, it is permissible for a woman to have her hands and have uncovered, as being allowed under the exception what appears thereof, as without uncovering these it would be impossible for women to take part in any business; the rest of the body and the ornaments upon it, whether in the form of tight clothes or of gold and silver ornaments, are to be kept concealed by a long head-covering or, say, an overcost . . . "(Muhammad Ali, op. cit., pp. 701-2).

A reference to Islamic history clearly proves that women often played important rôles in Muslim society. To take but a few of numerous instances, we may note that the Empress Zubaida was a gifted woman and an accomplished poetess, and it is to her generosity that Mecca is provided with that muchneeded canal which bears her name. Under the Abbasides, Arab maidens went to fight on horseback, and even commanded troops. The mother of Muqtadir herself presided at the High Court of Appeal, listened to applications, gave audiences to dignitaries and foreign envoys. The Shaikha Shuhda, in the sixth century of the Hegira, lectured in Baghdad on history and belles-lettres. One of the most famous ladyjurists was Zainab, daughter of Muwayyid, who was a pupil of some of the greatest jurists of her time, and she was licensed to teach law. Again, under the Ommeyades women were toremost in culture and refinement. Both Granada and Cordova produced women eminent in the arts and the sciences, such as Nashun, Zamab, Hamda, Hafsa, Saffiya, and Maria, (Ameer Ali, A Short History of the Saracens, pp. 199-201, and 4,55 et sep.).

"The system of seclusion existing generally among Muslims," continues Ameer Ali, "did not come into vogue until the reign of the Ommeyade Walid II. Borrowed originally from the Persians and the Byzantines, its practice became

CONCLUSION

common owing to the character and habits of the sovereign, It is an historical fact that the custom of secluding women prevailed among most nations of antiquity. The Athenians (as we have noticed before) certainly observed it in all its strictness. In later times it found its way among the Byzantines, who claimed to be inheritors of Athenian culture. From them it descended to the Russians, among whom it was maintained with ludicrous rigour until Peter I abolished it by his usual drastic methods. . . . Taken as a whole, woman's condition at , is not more unfavourable than that of many European women. * Her comparative backward condition is the result of want of culture among the community generally rather than of any special feature in the Islamic laws or institutions. Her legal status is decidedly superior to that of European women. The social immunities she enjoys allow the fullest exercise on her part of the powers and privileges which the law gives to her. She acts, if sui juris, in all matters which relate to herself and to her own property in her own individual right without the intervention of father or husband. She appoints her own attorney, and delegates to him all the powers which she herself possesses. She enters into valid contracts with her husband and her male relations on a footing of perfect equality. If she is ill-treated, she has the right to have the marriage tie dissolved. She is entitled to pledge the credit of her husband for the maintenance of herself and her children. She is able, even if holding a different creed from that of her husband, to claim the free and unfettered exercise of her own religious observances. If the husband is possessed of means, he is bound to place at his non-Muslim wife's disposal some conveyance to take her to her usual place of worship. He is debarred from molesting her in the smallest degree on the exercise of her faith, or depriving her of the custody of her children without valid reason, such as misconduct or tampering with their religion. Her antenuptial settlement is her own by absolute right, and she can

deal with it according to her own free-will and pleasure. To become entitled to its enjoyment, she requires no intermediate trustees or next friends. When she is aggrieved by her husband she has a right to sue him in her own individual capacity. Her claim for her ante-nuptial settlement on the estate of her husband has priority over all unsecured debts and she ranks in pari passu with secured creditors. All, Mahomedan Law, vol. ii. pp. 25-27).

Where, then, is the degradation of woman in Islam! Rather, the Qur-an emphasizes:—

- (a) "And whoever does good deeds, whether male or female, and he (or she) is a believer—these shall enter the garden, and they shall not be dealt with a jot unjustly", (iv. 124).
- (b) "Allah has promised to the believing men and the believing women gardens, beneath which rivers flow, to abide in them, and goodly dwellings in gardens of perpetual abode . . ." (ix. 72).

For the first time spiritual, legal, and social equality is conceded to woman, and thus in its treatment of the relationship of man and woman, Islam has given to mankind a code of laws which for their practicality, equity, far-sightedness, and universality remains to this day unparalleled. Its service alone in this respect should earn for it the undying gratitude of humanity. From the very status of a slave, from the very dust beneath man's feet, Islam has raised woman to be man's companion and partner in life. It is a glorious chapter in the history of human progress and civilization!

Blessed is the name of Muhammad, who said: "Paradise lies at the feet of thy Mother." Thus on Woman he bestowed the signal honour of being the true Mother of Humanity and the twin child of Nature!

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PRINTED IN GREAT BRITAIN BY UNWIN PROTREES LIMITED LONDON AND WORING